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Quantitative Computational Fluid Dynamics Analyses of Particle Deposition on a Transonic Axial Compressor Blade—Part I: Particle Zones Impact

Solid particle ingestion is one of the principal degradation mechanisms in the turbine and compressor sections of gas turbines. In particular, in industrial applications, the microparticles that are not captured by the air filtration system cause fouling and, consequently, a performance drop of the compressor. This paper presents three-dimensional numerical simulations of the microparticle ingestion ($0\ \mu\text{m}$ – $2\ \mu\text{m}$) on an axial compressor rotor carried out by means of a commercial computational fluid dynamic (CFD) code. Particles of this size can follow the main air flow with relatively little slip, while being impacted by flow turbulence. It is of great interest to the industry to determine which areas of the compressor airfoils are impacted by these small particles. Particle trajectory simulations use a stochastic Lagrangian tracking method that solves the equations of motion separate from the continuous phase. Then, the NASA Rotor 37 is considered as a case study for the numerical investigation. The compressor rotor numerical model and the discrete phase treatment have been validated against the experimental and numerical data available in literature. The number of particles, sizes, and concentrations are specified in order to perform a quantitative analysis of the particle impact on the blade surface. The results show that microparticles tend to follow the flow by impacting at full span with a higher impact concentration on the pressure side (PS). The suction side (SS) is affected only by the impact of the smaller particles (up to $1\ \mu\text{m}$). Particular fluid dynamic phenomena, such as separation, stagnation point, and tip leakage vortex, strongly influence the impact location of the particles. [DOI: 10.1115/1.4028295]

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7 Introduction

8 Gas turbines ingest a large amount of air during their operation.
9 The quality and purity of the air entering the turbine is a significant
10 factor in the performance and life of the gas turbine. In particular,
11 the fouling of the axial compressor is a serious operating problem
12 and its control is of critical importance for operators of gas turbine-
13 driven power plants, compressor stations, and pump stations.
14

15 The air is a continuous medium that contains and carries a large
16 number of particles (contaminants). The contaminants in the air are
17 different in composition, size (pollen $50\ \mu\text{m}$, spores $3\ \mu\text{m}$ – $10\ \mu\text{m}$
18 and exhaust particle $< 0.1\ \mu\text{m}$), and quantity [1].

19 In order to minimize the performance loss of industrial gas
20 turbines, an adequate filtration system that can limit the ingestion
21 of contaminants by the power unit is required. For industrial gas
22 turbines, highly effective filtration systems exist [2]. Because modern
23 inlet filtration systems are effective in removing particles larger
24 than about $1\ \mu\text{m}$ to $2\ \mu\text{m}$ (Fig. 1), compressor erosion is not a
25 problem frequently found in industrial gas turbines. However,
26 depending on the type of filtration system used, smaller particles
27 can enter the engine. These smaller particles are too small to cause
28 erosion issues, but they do cause compressor fouling. Evaluation
29 of fouled compressors has revealed contamination both on the SS
30 and the PS of the compressor blades [3]. Kurz and Brun [3] also
31 pointed out that only small particles can stick to the blade surface

and thus cause fouling. Morini et al. [4] and Aldi et al. [5] have
shown by numerical simulation that the effects of fouling on the
SS of blades are significantly stronger than from contamination on
the PS.

The question that still requires research is the mechanism that
allows particles to actually reach the suction surface. Particles that
deviate from the streamlines will readily impact on the PS of the

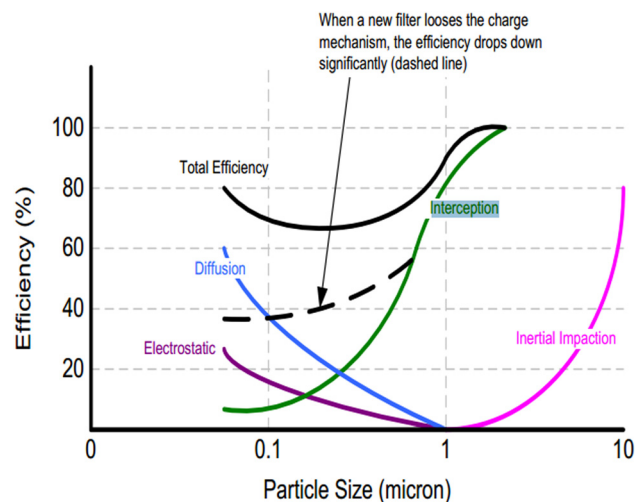


Fig. 1 Combination of filtration mechanism to obtain filter efficiency at various particle sizes [2]

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39 blades, but the mechanism that can deposit particles on the SS of
40 the blade is not fully understood.

41 In this article, an extended study on particles with diameters
42 close to $1\ \mu\text{m}$ was carried out. The results show the position and
43 the quantity of the ingested particles that affected the blade sur-
44 face of an axial compressor test case. Particular emphasis was
45 placed on the modeling of the boundary layers, since the turbulent
46 eddy structures are suspected to contribute to the impact of par-
47 ticles on the blade surface.

48 Literature Review

49 Compressor fouling is due to (i) the size, amount, and chemical
50 nature of the aerosols in the inlet air flow, (ii) dust, (iii) organic
51 matter such as seeds from trees, (iv) oil from leaky compressor
52 bearing seals, and (v) ingestion of the exhaust or plumes from
53 nearby cooling towers. Foulants in the ppm range can cause
54 deposits on blading, resulting in severe performance deterioration.
55 The effects of compressor fouling are a drop in airflow and com-
56 pressor isentropic efficiency. Estimates have placed fouling as
57 being responsible for 70–85% of all gas turbine performance
58 losses accumulated during the operation. Output losses between
59 2% (under favorable conditions) and 15–20% (under adverse con-
60 ditions) have been experienced [6]. Fouling can be removed by
61 off-line water washing and slowed down by on-line water wash-
62 ing. However, water washing, as well as the loss of power,
63 reduces the production capability of the gas turbine plant.

64 Particles that cause fouling are typically smaller than $2\ \mu\text{m}$. The
65 conditions under which impacting particles actually stick to sur-
66 face blades are less clear. In general, the sticking mechanisms
67 include Van der Waals, capillary and electrostatic forces, and
68 re-entrainment. The forces become more dominant for smaller
69 particles. If there is wetness, capillary forces tend to dominate.
70 This leads to the following conditions [3]:

- 71 • dry particles have to be very small to stick
- 72 • wet surfaces and/or wet particles allow bigger particles to
73 stick.

74 The particle sticking on blade surfaces results in an increase of
75 the thickness of the airfoil and the surface roughness. Both of
76 these events change the flow path inside the passage vanes, in par-
77 ticular: (i) increment of the boundary layer thickness, (ii) decre-
78 ment of the flow passage area, and (iii) modifications of the 3D
79 fluid dynamic phenomena.

80 As mentioned above, the fouling was induced by particles
81 smaller than $2\ \mu\text{m}$. From literature, the particle sizes can be cate-
82 gorized into seven classes [7]:

- 83 • Coarse solid: 5 mm–100 mm
- 84 • Granular solid: 0.3 mm–5 mm
- 85 • Coarse powder: 100 μm –300 μm
- 86 • Fine powder: 10 μm –100 μm
- 87 • Super fine powder: 1 μm –10 μm
- 88 • Ultrafine powder: $\sim 1\ \mu\text{m}$
- 89 • Nanoparticles: $\sim 1\ \text{nm}$

90 The fouling phenomena refer to the *ultrafine powder* category.
91 In literature, there are many studies that have reported analyses of
92 this type of particle. These studies are characterized by different
93 models and dominated by different forces when the particle is
94 transported and dragged by the air flow.

95 In this paper, three main issues are referred to: (i) CFD numeri-
96 cal simulations, (ii) particle treatment, and (iii) turbomachines. In
97 this paragraph, the authors want to highlight the literature avail-
98 able regarding these three topics.

99 From a CFD point of view, some studies were related to
100 understanding the capability of a commercial code to describe the
101 trajectories of the particle that are dispersed and dragged by the
102 stream airflow. Zhang and Chen [8] studied the particle distribu-
103 tion and the removal performance of the ventilation system in a
104 ventilated room. The study was conducted for a particle size in

the range of 0.31 μm –4.50 μm by using a Lagrangian method. The
105 authors highlighted the model-method sensitivity to the number of
106 trajectories and runs of the discrete phase simulations. In Ref. [9],
107 the authors studied the influence of the model lift coefficients,
108 the particle rotation and the influence of a two-way coupling reso-
109 lution strategy. The results have shown that the formulation of
110 the lift force and the rotation of the particle have an influence on
111 the particle trajectories. Finally, the authors have shown that
112 with the one-way coupling method the results were in strong
113 agreement with the results obtained by a two-way coupling
114 calculation.

115 From a particle point of view, in Ref. [10], the authors studied
116 the influence of the impacting velocity and the nature of the parti-
117 cle on the erosion of different materials. The results have shown
118 that the erosion was related to the presence of quartz in the dust
119 and also that the threshold size limit (in order to avoid erosion)
120 was equal to 5 μm (at about 305 m/s of impact velocity). From the
121 experimental results, the authors have shown that the particle
122 incurs a significant fragmentation which depends on the initial
123 size and on the impact velocity.

124 From a turbomachinery point of view, in literature, there are
125 studies related to the gas turbine and studies related to the axial
126 compressor.

127 The first type was referred to the hot section of the gas turbine
128 where high temperature plays a fundamental role in the particle
129 transportation and sticking mode. Hamed et al. [11] reported a
130 complete review of erosion and deposition research in turboma-
131 chines and the associated degradation in engine performance
132 caused by particulate matter ingestion. In particular, the authors
133 reported a large number of investigations on the particle deposi-
134 tion on the blade turbine surface, in which the characteristics of
135 the particle motion, size and deposition rate of the particle were
136 highlighted. The reported results show that in the particle size
137 range of 0.5 μm –3.0 μm there is a combined action of two mecha-
138 nisms called diffusion and inertia. On the turbine blade, in Ref.
139 [12], there are specific experimental and numerical analyses in
140 order to link the impact angle, impact velocity, and size particles
141 to the erosion rate and surface roughness.

142 The second type, as mentioned above, was referred to the axial
143 compressor. In Ref. [13], the authors performed a study of the
144 erosion effects in an axial compressor stage. The particles have a
145 diameter equal to 165 μm and the results were obtained with the
146 following assumption: (i) nonrotating spherical particle, (ii) the
147 particle–particle collision was neglected, (iii) the particle–phase
148 had no influence on the gas-phase, and (iv) the drag force was the
149 only force that influenced the particle-phase. The authors took
150 into account the effect of the rebounded particles and the results
151 show that the first impact of the particle determines the most im-
152 portant erosion on the blade surface, in particular, at the leading
153 edge (LE). With the same axial compressor and nature of the par-
154 ticles, Suzuki and Yamamoto [14] show the performance drop and
155 the modification of the flow path inside the stage caused by the
156 erosion. Ghenaiet [15] studied the particle dynamics and erosion
157 of the front compression stage of a turbofan PW-JT8-D17. Particle
158 trajectory simulations used a stochastic Lagrangian tracking
159 code and the sand particle size varied from 0 μm to 1000 μm . The
160 numerical simulations show different trajectories for different
161 particle diameters. After the initial impact, the larger particles
162 were affected by inertia and centrifugal force and some of these
163 re-impacted the blade surface at the PS. Some particles crossed
164 the blade through the tip clearance and induced erosion of the
165 blade tip. Small size particles (i.e., $\approx 10\ \mu\text{m}$) tended to follow the
166 flow path closely and were strongly influenced by the flow turbu-
167 lence, secondary flows, and flow leakage above the blade tip and
168 induced erosion of the blade tip and shroud. Particles with a diam-
169 eter less than 10 μm have not been taken into account for the ero-
170 sion analyses.

171 In literature, regarding the fouling application and the ultrafine
172 powder in axial compressors, there are some experimental results.
173 Zuniga and Osvaldo [16], Parker and Lee [17], and Erol and
174

175 Bettner [18] have reported some experimental measurements with
 176 regard to the deposition on the axial compressor blade surface. In
 177 particular, in Ref. [16], there are reports that regard the deposits
 178 on the gas turbine compressor rotor and stator vanes for off/
 179 in-shore applications. In Ref. [17], there is a study of fouling
 180 patterns on blades caused by an ingestion of submicron particles
 181 (0.13 μm –0.19 μm). Finally, in Ref. [18], the authors report a
 182 comparison of the performance of gas turbine axial compressors
 183 for different shroud roughness levels.

184 While for the experimental evaluation of fouling, the data pre-
 185 sented in literature cover some applications, from a CFD point of
 186 view, there is a lack of study. The fouling phenomena on the axial
 187 compressor can be well reproduced by a combined strategy that
 188 involves the modification of the thickness of the airfoil and the
 189 application of a surface roughness on the blade surface [19]. With
 190 this method, in Refs. [4] and [5], the authors presented some sen-
 191 sitivity analyses related to the different position of the deposits
 192 (pressure and SS, spanwise direction) on the blade surface by
 193 using the different values of surface roughness.

194 In this paper, the authors present a CFD study for the ultrafine
 195 powder ingestion (particle size 0.25 μm –2.00 μm) by an axial
 196 compressor rotor, the Nasa Rotor 37. The particle ingestion was
 197 studied by using a CFD commercial code. The main items of this
 198 work can be summarized as follows:

- 199 • validation of the numerical model by using the experimental
- 200 data reported in literature
- 201 • simulation of the ingestion of an ultrafine powder
- 202 • quantitative analysis of the impact location
- 203 • sensitivity analyses of the particles–blade interaction in cases
- 204 of different particle diameter.

205 **Numerical Model and Validation**

206 The geometry and performance data were taken from Ref. [20].

207 **Reference Numerical Compressor Stage.** The NASA Rotor
 208 37 is composed of 36 blades and the tip clearance at design speed
 209 is 0.356 mm (0.45% of the blade span). Only a single passage
 210 vane was modeled as can be seen in Fig. 2(a).

211 All the simulations are performed in a steady multiple frame of
 212 reference in order to take into account the contemporary presence
 213 of moving and stationary domains. The rotating and stationary
 214 frames are coupled using a frozen stage interface with the appro-
 215 priate frame transformation occurring across the interface. The
 216 numerical domain is composed by three domains: two stationary
 217 domains (inlet and outlet duct) and one rotating domain (rotor).

218 **Numerical Grid.** A multiblock hexahedral grid with a total
 219 number of 1,131,063 elements is used with refinements in the
 220 vicinity of the leading and trailing edges (TEs) of blade and near
 221 hub and shroud and in tip clearance. The mesh on the blade sur-
 222 face with the aforementioned refinements can be seen in Fig. 2(b).
 223 Regarding the near walls, the nodes are positioned in such a way
 224 that the values of y^+ are within 5–65.

225 In Fig. 2(c), the detail of the mesh generated for the inlet sur-
 226 face can be seen. In this surface, every single element has the
 227 same size in order to guarantee a uniform node distribution on
 228 the surface. The uniform distribution of grid nodes allows the real-
 229 ization of a uniform particle injection from this surface. An inlet
 230 surface of 1,888 hexahedral elements was created.

231 **Boundary Conditions.** The total pressure, total temperature,
 232 and flow angle were imposed at the inflow boundary.

233 The inlet total pressure $p_{0,1}$ and total temperature $T_{0,1}$ were
 234 imposed at 101,325 Pa and 288.15 K, respectively. An average rel-
 235 ative static pressure $p_{g,2}$ was imposed at the outflow boundary,
 236 both in the near-choked flow region and in the near-stall region.
 237 The outflow pressure was progressively increased in order to per-
 238 form the entire performance trend.

239 All the simulations refer to 17,188 rpm (100% design rotational
 240 speed). Finally, since only a section of the full geometry has been
 241 modeled, rotational periodic boundary conditions were applied to
 242 the lateral surfaces of the flow domain.

243 **Numerical Issues.** The numerical simulations were carried out
 244 by means of the commercial CFD code ANSYS FLUENT 13.0 [21].

245 The code solves the 3D Reynolds-averaged form of the
 246 Navier–Stokes equations by using a finite-element based finite-
 247 volume method. An implicit Roe-flux-difference splitting (FDS)
 248 formulation was adopted with a Green-Gauss Node Based spatial
 249 discretization. For the flow, a second order Upwind was chosen.

250 **Turbulence and Wall Modeling.** In this paper, the standard
 251 $k-\epsilon$ turbulence model with a STandard Wall function (STW) is
 252 used. For the turbulent terms, a first order Upwind scheme was
 253 adopted for the solution phase.

254 **Validation.** In Fig. 3, the calculated and experimental perform-
 255 ance maps [20] are reported. It can be noticed that the shape of
 256 both the experimental performance maps is correctly reproduced
 257 by the numerical code. Since the aim of the validation was to
 258 obtain a compressor model, the numerical model can be consid-
 259 ered reliable. The numerical values are in fairly good agreement
 260 with the experimental data. The numerical pressure ratio β and the

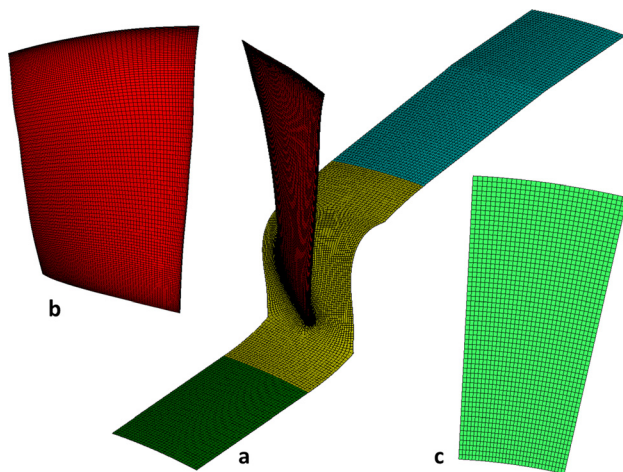


Fig. 2 NASA Rotor 37 numerical domain: (a) single passage vane, (b) the mesh on the blade surface, and (c) the mesh at the inlet surface

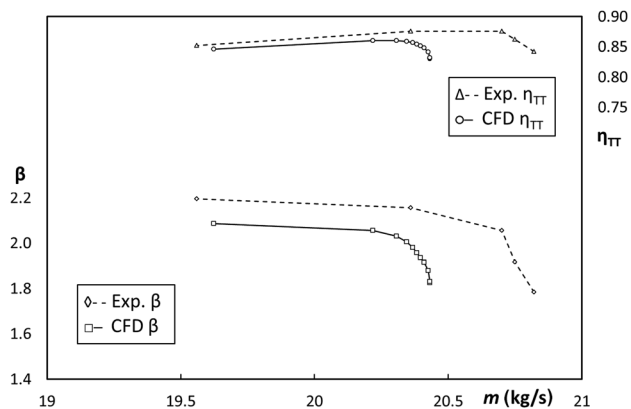


Fig. 3 Comparison between the experimental results (exp.) [20] and the CFD results

261 total-to-total efficiency η_{TT} always underestimate the experimen-
262 tal data but in a very consistent way. The deviation in terms of
263 mass flow rate at the choked-flow condition is about 1.87%.

264 Particle Model

265 The fouling phenomena, as described above, are due to the ad-
266 herence of materials and substances (liquid and/or solid) on the
267 compressor surfaces, which alter both the shape and roughness of
268 the surface progressively. This phenomenon can be described by
269 by the following three phases: (i) transport of the contaminants
270 (discrete phase) by the air (continuum phase), (ii) contact and
271 adhesion of the first discrete phase (particle) with the surface, and
272 (iii) repeated adhesion of the following particles on the contami-
273 nant previously deposited on the surface.

274 The bond between two generic bodies (such as the first particle
275 with the surface and the following particles with the particle that
276 is already contact with the surface) is ruled by (i) the physico-
277 chemical properties of the body, (ii) the type and characteristic of
278 the impact (velocity and angle), and (iii) the presence of a third
279 substance at the point of impact (called bridges). The phenomenon
280 of the impact between two bodies, however, may not always result
281 in an adhesion and bond between the two bodies. In fact, after
282 impact, in some cases, the two bodies can change energy and
283 directions of motion with respect to those possessed before the
284 impact. In this case, the phenomenon can be described by the
285 introduction of some parameters called coefficients of restitution.

286 A comprehensive study of the phenomenon of ingestion of con-
287 taminants by a turbomachine must contain the resolution of the
288 three phases of adhesion and that of rebound mentioned above. In
289 this paper, the transport of contaminants (particles) is resolved by
290 the coupling of the Eulerian and Lagrangian approaches while, for
291 the resolution of particles that impact the surfaces of the rotor,
292 two strategies were adopted, i.e., the ideal adhesion and reflection.

293 **Balance of Forces.** CFD is a useful tool for studying particle
294 dispersion, spatial distribution, and particle wall interaction with
295 either the Eulerian or Lagrangian method. The Eulerian method
296 treats particles as a continuum and solves the conservation equa-
297 tions for particle-phases. On the other hand, the Lagrangian
298 method emphasizes the individual behavior of each particle and
299 determines particle trajectories based on the equation of motion.
300 In this paper, the solution approach is based on a mathematical
301 model with Eulerian conservation equations in the continuous
302 phase and a Lagrangian frame to simulate a discrete second phase.
303 In this approach, the airflow field is first simulated, and then the
304 trajectories of individual particles are tracked by integrating a
305 force balance equation on the particle, which can be written as

$$\frac{du_p}{dt} = F_D + \frac{g(\rho_p - \rho)}{\rho_p} + F_S + F_B \quad (1)$$

306 The left-hand side represents the inertial force per unit mass and
307 u_p is the particle velocity. The first term on the right-hand side is
308 the drag term (F_D is the inverse of relaxation time) and the second
309 term represents the gravity and the buoyancy contribution, where
310 ρ and ρ_p are the density of air and the particles, respectively. The
311 last two terms F_S and F_B represent the additional contributions
312 (per unit mass) called Saffman's lift and Brownian force, respec-
313 tively. These last contributions are generally at least two magni-
314 tudes smaller than the drag force. However, some of these forces
315 may occasionally become comparable in magnitude to the drag
316 force within the turbulent boundary layer.

317 In this paper, the choice of the proper formulation of the drag
318 terms represents the most important step because the particles that
319 are ingested by the rotor add the following characteristics: (i)
320 spherical, (ii) dragged by a high Mach number air flow, and (iii)
321 its diameters are, in some cases, less than 1 μm . The software

provides three types of drag model that are described below. The
drag term for spherical smooth particles is

$$F_D = \frac{18\mu C_D \text{Re}_p}{\rho_p d_p^2} (u - u_p) \quad (2)$$

where μ is the fluid viscosity, d_p is the particle diameter, and Re_p
is the particle Reynolds number defined as

$$\text{Re}_p = \frac{\rho d_p |u_p - u|}{\mu} \quad (3)$$

and C_D is the drag coefficient defined as

$$C_D = a_1 + \frac{a_2}{\text{Re}} + \frac{a_3}{\text{Re}^2} \quad (4)$$

where a_1 , a_2 , and a_3 are the coefficients defined by Morsi and
Alexander [22].

If the particle Mach number is greater than 0.4 and the
Reynolds particle number is greater than 20, for the proper
resolution of the particle motion the spherical drag law must be
corrected by the proper high Mach number term [23] provided by
ANSYS FLUENT.

For the submicron size particles, the Stokes law was corrected
by the Cunningham correction term. The drag term for spherical
submicron particles follows the Stokes drag law

$$F_D = \frac{18\mu}{\rho_p d_p^2 C_c} (u - u_p) \quad (5)$$

where μ is the fluid viscosity, d_p is the particle diameter, and C_c is
the Cunningham correction factor defined as

$$C_c = 1 + \frac{2\lambda}{d_p} \left(1.257 + 0.4e^{-(1.1d_p/2\lambda)} \right) \quad (6)$$

where λ is the molecular mean free path.

The last two contributions are Saffman's lift force and Brown-
ian force. Saffman's lift force is defined as

$$F_S = \frac{2K\nu^{1/2}\rho d_{ij}}{\rho_p d_p (d_{ik} d_{kl})^{1/4}} (u - u_p) \quad (7)$$

where $K=2.594$, d_{ij} is the deformation tensor, and ν is the air
kinematic viscosity. This contribution is intended for small parti-
cle Reynolds numbers. Also Re_p based on the particle-fluid veloci-
ty difference must be smaller than the square root of the particle
Reynolds number based on the shear stress Re_{sh} defined as

$$\text{Re}_{sh} = \frac{d_p^2 |du/dy|}{\nu} \quad (8)$$

The Brownian term is intended only for laminar simulations
and its contribution has not been taken into account in this paper.

As mentioned above, every single model and contribution has
its own application limit. For this reason, a preliminary sensitivity
analysis has been carried out by the authors.

Tracking Method. The dispersion of particles in the fluid
phase can be predicted using a stochastic tracking model. The
time-averaged flow field determines the mean path of particles,
while the instantaneous flow field governs each particle's turbu-
lent dispersion from the mean trajectory. By computing the trajec-
tory in this manner for a sufficient number of representative
particles (named *number of tries*), the random effects of turbu-
lence on the particle dispersion can be included.

AQ3

360 This investigation used the discrete random walk (DRW) model
 361 to simulate the stochastic velocity fluctuations in the airflow.
 362 The DRW model assumes that the fluctuating velocities follow a
 363 Gaussian probability distribution. The DRW model may give non-
 364 physical results in strongly nonhomogeneous diffusion-dominated
 365 flows, where small particles should become uniformly distributed.
 366 Instead, the DRW will show a tendency for such particles to con-
 367 centrate in low-turbulence regions of the flow. In this case, a spe-
 368 cific analysis conducted by the authors shows that the interaction
 369 between the wall, with its boundary layer, and the discrete phase
 370 is characterized by the inertial law, as reported in more detail in
 371 the next paragraph. For this reason, the diffusion phenomena can
 372 be neglected and the DRW model can be considered reliable.

373 The number of particles tracked was selected in order to satisfy
 374 statistical independence since turbulent dispersion is modeled
 375 based on a stochastic process. In the present study, all the injec-
 376 tions take place on the inlet surface (see Fig. 2(c)). The inlet sur-
 377 face was made by 1,888 uniform distributed elements that have
 378 the same size. This particularity allows the achievement of the
 379 maximum uniformity of the injected particles at the inlet of the
 380 rotor. All the injections were characterized by 1,500 trajectories
 381 and every single analysis was carried out with 3 different runs.
 382 For the tracking scheme the Runge–Kutta model was chosen.

383 Finally, according to Wang and Dhanasekaran [24], the time
 384 constant used in stochastic tracking was imposed equal to 0.15 for
 385 all the simulations.

386 **Near-Wall Particle Behavior.** As mentioned above, the parti-
 387 cle–surface interaction and particle–particle interaction play a key
 388 role in the study of fouling. In literature, there are plenty of
 389 models that describe these two types of interactions. Tomas in
 390 Ref. [25] reported an extensive and comprehensive review of all
 391 the models present in the literature. Each model is necessarily
 392 obtained thanks to assumptions about the type of contact (elastic,
 393 elastic-adhesive, viscoelastic, plastic-adhesive) and the type of
 394 force–displacement (elastic–plastic, elastic-dissipative, plastic-
 395 dissipative, plastic-hardening, viscoplastic-adhesive). The parti-
 396 cles adhesion (with a surface or another particle) can be
 397 explained by the following bond effects [25]: (i) surface and field
 398 forces at direct contact (Van der Waals forces, electrostatic forces,
 399 electric conductor, electric nonconductor, magnetic force), (ii)
 400 material bridges between particle surfaces (liquid bridges and
 401 solid bridges), and (iii) interlocking phenomena provided by mac-
 402 romolecular particle shape effects or by a particular particle nature
 403 or surface characteristics. These bond effects are directly related
 404 to forces and displacements that take place at a microscale level
 405 (close to the molecular size).

406 Finally, considering the dynamic movement and the subsequent
 407 contact of a particle with a surface (as may be the impact of a
 408 grain of dust and the rotor blade) the characteristics and phenom-
 409 ena that take place in the area of impact are directly related to the
 410 characteristics of the particle, the characteristics of the surface
 411 and the impact force, which can be represented by the impact ve-
 412 locity between the two bodies.

413 The goal of this paper is to provide an estimate of the presence
 414 of particles on the blade surfaces of the NASA Rotor 37 test case.
 415 As described above, the problem of the impact/adherence between
 416 two bodies is highly complicated and it is hard to be solved
 417 without using simplifications and assumptions. For this reason,
 418 the following conditions have been adopted: (i) not deformable
 419 spherical particles, (ii) ideal adherence condition (named *trap*) on
 420 the blade surface, and (iii) nonadherence condition (named *reflect*)
 421 on the hub and shroud surfaces.

422 In a generic way for the turbomachines applications, it can be
 423 possible to describe three types of resulting conditions for the con-
 424 tact between a particle and a surface: (i) a large particle bounces
 425 on a dry surface, (ii) a small particle sticks to a dry surface, and
 426 (iii) large and small particles stick to a wet surface. The condition
 427 of the ideal adherence set on the surface of the rotor blade reflects

a real heavy operating condition, which is found in reality in cases
 where the compressor works in very humid environments and/or
 with the presence of oily substances which promote sticking (such
 as transmission oil and grease), as reported in Refs. [6] and [26].

The wall boundary conditions allow the evaluation of the posi-
 tion where the contaminants hit the blade surface for the first
 time, avoiding the introduction of the inaccuracies due to the use
 of restitution models not fully representative of the real condi-
 tions. The condition of nonadherence set on the hub and shroud
 allows the analysis only on the blade surfaces. The authors have
 implemented a specific functions and restitution coefficient for the
 near-wall particle behavior. The model functions are defined in
 agreement with the Ahlert model [27] where the impact angle
 function $f(\alpha)$ is defined as

$$f(\alpha) = 17.9\alpha - 33.4\alpha^2 \quad (9)$$

for the range $0-\pi/12$. However, the function $f(\alpha)$ as defined as

$$f(\alpha) = 2.1843 + 1.0362\alpha + 0.5777\alpha^2 - 2.8201\alpha^3 + 1.4242\alpha^4 + 0.0618\alpha^5 - 0.1041\alpha \quad (10)$$

for the range $\pi/12-\pi/2$. The impact angle α is expressed in radi-
 ans. The other model constants are: (i) the coefficient for the rela-
 tive particle velocity $b(v)$ equal to 1.73 and (ii) the coefficient of
 the particle diameter $C(d_p)$ equal to 1.85×10^{-8} . The functions f ,
 b , and C are related to the property of the materials.

For the restitution coefficient, the results obtained by Forder
 et al. [28] were chosen. In this study, the authors found the restitu-
 tion coefficient for sand particles impacting steel plates. The restitu-
 tion coefficient is dependent on the particle impingement angle
 α , and both the perpendicular and tangential components of the
 restitution coefficient should be considered. Forder et al. provided
 the following correlations for both perpendicular e_n , and tangen-
 tial e_t , restitution coefficients based on impingement testing using
 AISI 4130 carbon steel and sand

$$e_n(\alpha) = 0.988 - 0.780\alpha + 0.190\alpha^2 - 0.024\alpha^3 + 0.027\alpha^4 \quad (11)$$

$$e_t(\alpha) = 1.000 - 0.780\alpha + 0.840\alpha^2 - 0.210\alpha^3 + 0.028\alpha^4 - 0.022\alpha^5 \quad (12)$$

where the impact angle α is expressed in radians.

The coefficients were implemented on the ANSYS FLUENT solver
 in order to describe the interaction between sand particles and
 blade surface well. Table 1 summarizes the location on the numer-
 ical model for all the functions shown.

For the particle–wall interaction, the turbulence model plays a
 key role in the resolution of the particle trajectory near the wall.
 Through the use of $k-\epsilon$ STW turbulence model, there is an iso-
 tropic treatment of the turbulence near the wall and this implies,
 in the case where the values of $y+$ are less than 5, that both the
 streamwise mean velocity and the turbulence kinetic energy will
 be overestimated. More details can be found in Ref. [29]. In this
 paper, as mentioned above, the values of $y+$ do not drop below 5.

Table 1 Wall–particle interaction settings

Location	DPM wall condition	Erosion model function $f(\alpha), B(v), C(d_p)$	Restitution coefficients e_n, e_t
Inlet duct	Reflect	✓	✓
Outlet duct	Reflect	✓	✓
Rotor (hub and shroud)	Reflect	✓	✓
Blade surface	Trap	✓	✗

Table 2 Characteristics of the injections

Case	1	2	3	4	5
Particle diameter, d_p (μm)	0.25	0.50	1.00	1.50	2.00
Stokes number, St	0.0010	0.0039	0.0158	0.0355	0.0630
Nondimensional relaxation time, τ^+	6	26	103	231	410
Filtration efficiency, η_f (%)	60	65	85	96	99
Total flow rate, m_p (kg/s)	3.51×10^{-6}	2.46×10^{-5}	8.43×10^{-5}	7.59×10^{-5}	4.50×10^{-5}

470 In Ref. [29], the authors report an extensive sensitivity analysis
 471 of the relationship between the turbulence models, mesh refine-
 472 ment close to the wall and particle dimensions expressed by the
 473 nondimensional particle relaxation time τ^+ defined as

$$\tau^+ = \frac{(\rho_p/\rho)d_p^2 u^2}{18\nu} \quad (13)$$

474 where the u is the flow shear velocity defined as

$$u = \sqrt{\frac{\tau_w}{\rho}} \quad (14)$$

475 and τ_w is the wall shear stress. Tian and Ahmadi [29] highlighted
 476 the effect of a different turbulence model on the velocity deposi-
 477 tion for particles in a horizontal and vertical tube. Their study
 478 has shown that the $k-\epsilon$ STW turbulence model over-predicts the
 479 deposition velocity for particles in a *Brownian* ($\tau^+ < 10^{-2}$) and
 480 *transition* ($10^{-2} < \tau^+ < 10$) region and it does not allow the esti-
 481 mation of the real trend of the particle velocity deposition. For the
 482 *inertial* ($\tau^+ > 10$) region, the $k-\epsilon$ STW turbulence model over-
 483 predicts the deposition velocity but in a minor way compared to
 484 the other regions and the trend of the deposition velocity curve is
 485 in agreement with the other results. More details of the sensitivity
 486 analyses can be found in Ref. [29].

487 As can be seen in Table 2, the nondimensional particle relaxa-
 488 tion time τ^+ , defined by Eq. (13), is in the range of 6–410 which
 489 corresponds to the *inertial* region. For this reason the $k-\epsilon$ STW tur-
 490 bulence model used for all the analyses was considered suitable
 491 for studying the real deposition phenomenon that occurs in the
 492 axial compressor under investigation.

493 **Injection.** In order to take into account the real composition of
 494 the ultrafine powder, a density equal to 2,560 kg/m³ was chosen.
 495 This assumption is due to the nature of the air contaminants that
 496 make up a large part of sand, pollen, and very small particles of
 497 soil. The variation of the particle diameter, d_p , is in the range of
 498 0.25 μm –2.00 μm , while the Stokes number St (calculated at the
 499 inlet of the numerical model) is defined as

$$St = \frac{\rho_p d_p^2 U_1}{18\mu d_h} \quad (15)$$

500 is in the range of 0.0010–0.0630.

501 All the analyses refer to injections having particles with the
 502 same diameter, the same material and therefore the same Stokes
 503 number. On the contrary, the total flow rate of the discrete phase
 504 m_p , is linked to the work environment of the compressor and the
 505 efficiency of the filtration system. In fact, as reported in Ref. [1],
 506 the particle concentration in the air χ depends on the working area
 507 of the turbomachine and there is also a connection between the
 508 filtration efficiency η_f and the particle diameter as reported in
 509 Ref. [2]. For this reason, the total flow rate of contaminants is
 510 defined as

$$m_p = \chi q M_p (1 - \eta_f) \quad (16)$$

where M_p represents the particle mass, the particle concentration χ
 refers to the city side working area with 100,000,000 particles/dm³
 and the filtration efficiency η_f refers to the good (but not optimal)
 charge conditions of the filter (see Fig. 1). All the simulation char-
 acteristics are reported in Table 2.

In order to achieve the uniform particle concentration assump-
 tion, particles were released at the same velocity as the freestream
 (≈ 170 m/s). It is assumed that the particles will not affect the fluid
 flow (one-way coupling) as the volume fraction of the particles
 was very low ($\ll 10\%$). The continuum flow property refers to the
 noncontaminated flow conditions at the inlet of the compressor at
 the maximum efficiency point.

All injections take place on a previously solved flow field, at
 the best efficiency point. All results presented in this paper were
 obtained from convergent simulations, with a variation of the resi-
 dues of the motion and turbulent equations close to zero.

Results

In this paragraph, the analyses of the particle impact on the
 NASA Rotor 37 are shown. Only a portion of particles injected
 from the inlet surface of the numerical model impacts on the blade
 surface, and due to the imposed surface condition (trap), the con-
 tact results in a permanent adherence. For the comparison among
 the studied cases, the ratio η_{hit} can be used. The η_{hit} is defined as
 the ratio between the number of particles that hit the blade and the
 total number of injected particles. The trend of the η_{hit} as a func-
 tion of the particle diameter d_p is shown in Fig. 4.

From Fig. 4, it is possible to observe that the percentage of the
 particles that hit the blade surface increases with the diameter of
 the particles (solid line), with a law very similar to the variation of
 the Stokes number (dashed line). The same result, not shown for
 brevity, is obtained by comparing these two trends with the trend
 of the nondimensional particle relaxation time τ^+ , defined in
 Eq. (13). The increase of impacting particles with increasing non-
 dimensional relaxation time is consistent with the indications
 given in Ref. [29]. In Fig. 4, the total number of particles injected
 and the absolute number of impacting particles on the blade sur-
 face are also reported.

Due to the wall–particle interaction settings, the particles do
 not stick to the hub and shroud. Particles bounce on these surfaces
 following the rules imposed by the restitution coefficients reported
 in Eqs. (11) and (12). In Table 3, the global count of the bounces
 is reported. The values of N_b represent the number of particles
 that bounce on the hub or shroud, the values of n_b represent the
 ratio between the number of particles that bounce on the hub or
 shroud and the total number of injected particles and finally, the
 values of b represent the average number of bounces of each
 particle.

It can be noticed that the number of bouncy particles increases
 with the increase of particle diameter but, conversely, the number
 of average bounces decreases with the increase of particle diame-
 ter. This implies that for the smaller diameters, the particles that
 hit the blade may have had more frequent multiple impacts on the
 hub or shroud before the impact with the blade. Thus, the smaller
 particles could have a better chance of sticking to the hub or
 shroud surface compared to the bigger ones. However, this phe-
 nomenon is related to a much smaller number of particles

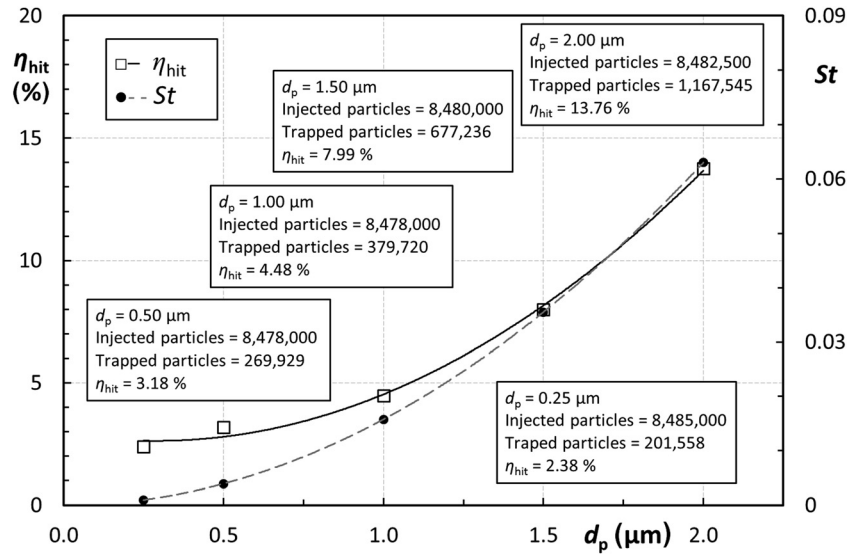


Fig. 4 Capture efficiency η_{hit} and Stokes number St versus particle diameter d_p

Table 3 Particles bounces on the hub and shroud

d_p (μm)	Hub			Shroud		
	N_b	n_b (%)	b	N_b	n_b (%)	b
0.25	66,186	0.78	4.4	66,216	0.78	6.8
0.50	71,154	0.84	2.5	76,236	0.90	6.7
1.00	53,082	0.63	1.3	94,218	1.11	6.4
1.50	63,357	0.75	1.1	122,811	1.45	5.4
2.00	91,749	1.08	0.9	160,617	1.89	4.2

567 compared to the number of injected particles (less than 2.00%)
 568 and does not influence the overall results.

569 **Particle Concentrations.** The first analysis of the results refers
 570 to the quantity defined as discrete phase model (DPM) concentra-
 571 tion χ_{DPM} , which allows the concentration of contaminant on a
 572 specific surface, defined as kg/m^3 , to be determined. The χ_{DPM}
 573 allows the combined effects between the trajectories of the
 574 particles and the total mass flow rate m_p calculated according to
 575 Eq. (16) to be highlighted. In the present paper, the χ_{DPM} allows
 576 the evaluation of the combined effects of: (i) the particle trajec-
 577 tories, (ii) the contamination intensity of the working compressor
 578 place χ , and (iii) the filtration efficiency η_f . The selected surface
 579 to evaluate the χ_{DPM} was obtained by a transformation of the
 580 blade surface. In particular, the new surface was positioned at a
 581 constant distance from the blade surface of $50 \mu\text{m}$ for each point.
 582 In this way, it is possible to evaluate the presence of contaminants
 583 in the portion of fluid that is located very close to the blade sur-
 584 face. Figure 5 shows the contour plot of χ_{DPM} on the transform
 585 surface for PS and SS of the blade. From this contour plot, it is
 586 possible to notice that

- 587 • the peak of the contaminants concentration is found in corre-
 588 spondence to the LE;
- 589 • the PS is more contaminated than the SS;
- 590 • the injections with the smallest particle ($d_p = 0.25 \mu\text{m}$ and
 591 $d_p = 0.50 \mu\text{m}$) show a more distributed contaminant concentra-
 592 tion on the PS, even if for the particles with d_p equal to
 593 $0.50 \mu\text{m}$ it is possible to see a band without contaminants at
 594 about 40% of the span;
- 595 • the injections with the largest particle ($d_p = 1.50 \mu\text{m}$ and
 596 $d_p = 2.00 \mu\text{m}$) show a relevant concentration of contaminants
 597 only on the PS, while in the SS, it is possible to see a very

598 small quantity of contaminants close to the hub and the top of
 599 the blade.

600 A detailed analysis of the particle impact zones on the blade
 601 surface will be carried out in the following paragraphs. The DPM
 602 concentration shown in Fig. 5 refers to one of the three runs. In
 603 fact, as mentioned above, every case was repeated for three differ-
 604 ent runs in order to avoid the problems caused by statistical reso-
 605 lution of particle tracking. In Table 4, the values of the DPM
 606 concentration peak χ_{DPM}^* , and the values obtained by a weight-
 607 area average of the DPM concentration $\bar{\chi}_{\text{DPM}}$ for all of the exe-
 608 cuted runs are reported. Due to this evidence, it is possible to
 609 define an average value $\bar{\chi}_{\text{DPM}}$ of the χ_{DPM} among the three runs
 610 for each case. From the values of Table 4, it is possible to note
 611 that the values obtained for the three runs of each case are very
 612 close to each other, confirming the independence of the results
 613 from the statistical dispersion. The values reported in Table 4 are
 614 higher compared to the values characteristic of actual air contami-
 615 nant concentration ($< 500 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). This fact is due to the previous
 616 assumption of particle size, distribution and matter density: actual
 617 air contaminants are a distribution of particles of different sizes
 618 and materials as reported in Ref. [1] and not particles with a
 619 homogenous size and density as assumed in the numerical
 620 simulations.

621 Figure 6 shows the trend of the m_p and $\bar{\chi}_{\text{DPM}}$ as functions of
 622 the particle diameter d_p . It is possible to note that for Case 3,
 623 corresponding to particles with a diameter equal to $1.00 \mu\text{m}$, the
 624 operating condition for the compressor is the most affected by the
 625 contaminants. In fact, for this case the highest values of m_p are
 626 associated with the highest values of $\bar{\chi}_{\text{DPM}}$.

627 From the $\bar{\chi}_{\text{DPM}}$, the ratio H can be defined as

$$H = \frac{\bar{\chi}_{\text{DPM}}}{\chi M_p (1 - \eta_f)} \quad (17)$$

628 This represents the dimensionless index of the compressor's
 629 capacity to concentrate the contaminants in the vicinity of the
 630 blades. For the studied cases, this particular index assumes the
 631 values reported in Table 4. This ratio is a representative index of a
 632 real fouling condition in which the compressor operates.

633 In fact, from this index, it is possible to link the characteristics
 634 of (i) the amount of contaminants, (ii) the type of contaminants,
 635 (iii) the filtration efficiency, and (iv) the flow pattern inside the
 636 axial compressor. The most severe fouling condition that affected
 637 the Rotor 37 at the best efficiency point is Case 3 for which all the

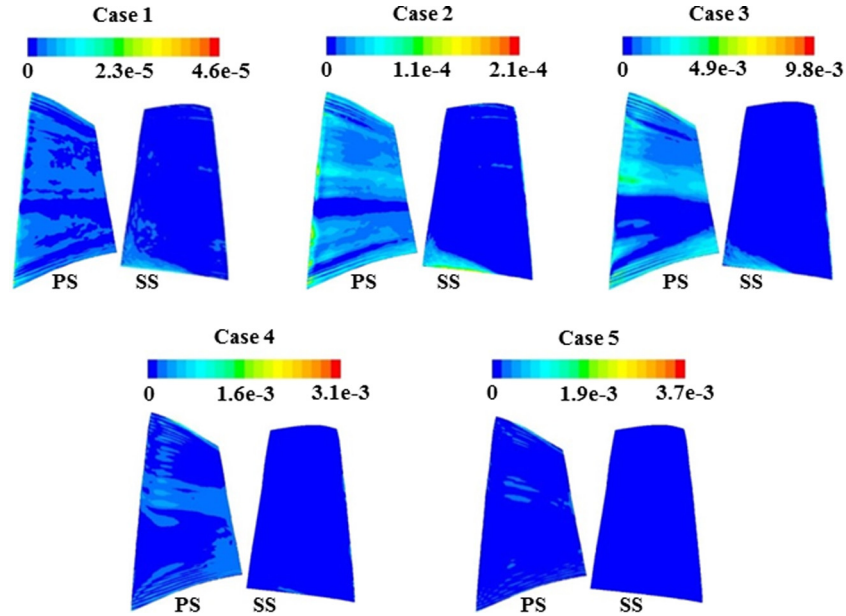


Fig. 5 DPM concentrations (kg/m³), PS and SS

Table 4 DPM concentrations (μg/m³) and fouling index

d_p (μm)	1st run		2nd run		3rd run		Average	H
	$\bar{\chi}_{DPM}^*$	$\bar{\chi}_{DPM}$	$\bar{\chi}_{DPM}^*$	$\bar{\chi}_{DPM}$	$\bar{\chi}_{DPM}^*$	$\bar{\chi}_{DPM}$	$\bar{\chi}_{DPM}$	
0.25	4.6×10^4	1.9×10^3	4.6×10^4	1.9×10^3	4.5×10^4	2.0×10^3	1.9×10^3	0.29
0.50	2.2×10^5	1.5×10^4	2.2×10^5	1.4×10^4	2.1×10^5	1.4×10^4	1.4×10^4	0.31
1.00	9.8×10^6	5.0×10^5	1.0×10^7	5.0×10^5	9.6×10^6	4.9×10^5	5.0×10^5	3.09
1.50	3.1×10^6	7.4×10^4	3.0×10^6	7.5×10^4	3.1×10^6	7.4×10^4	7.4×10^4	0.51
2.00	3.7×10^6	5.3×10^4	3.6×10^6	5.3×10^4	3.7×10^6	5.3×10^4	5.3×10^4	0.61

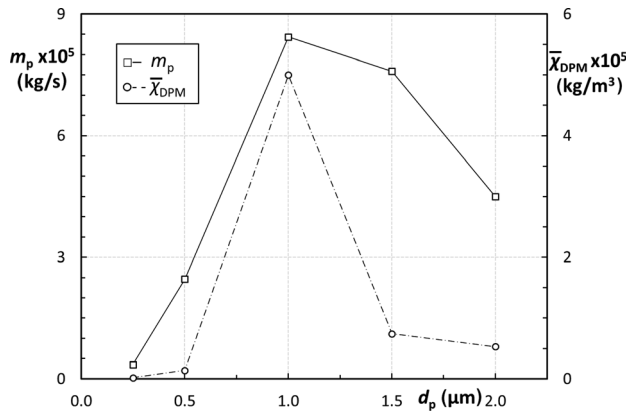


Fig. 6 Average DPM concentration and total mass flow m_p versus particle diameter d_p

638 four (i–iv) aforementioned characteristics determine the highest
639 value of the index.

640 The index H is very similar to the mass transfer coefficient h_f
641 found in Parker and Lee [17], which defines the ratio of the mass
642 deposited per unit area per unit time and the mass concentration in
643 air per unit volume. While the mass concentration in air per unit
644 volume is the denominator in Eq. (17), the numerator of the h_f can
645 be obtained by the quantity called *Accretion Rate* provided by the
646 software. The authors have instead used the ratio H , that appears
647 to be independent of time for two reasons: (i) the trap conditions
648 on the blade surface implies unrealistic values of the quantity

649 *Accretion Rate*, in contrast to those obtained from experimental
650 tests reported by Parker and Lee and (ii) the ratio H defined in
651 Eq. (17) can be used to compare different types of machine
652 considering only the capacity of the compressor to concentrate the air
653 contaminants around the blade surface (due to the shape of the
654 hub, shroud, airfoil).

655 **Particle Impact Locations.** In this paper (the first of two), the
656 authors have highlighted the locations affected by the particle
657 impact. Theoretically, zones with a high number of impacts will
658 be more affected by the fouling phenomena, but, actually, the
659 fouling phenomena depend on the sticking characteristic of the
660 particles. A comprehensive analysis on the sticking characteristics
661 and real fouling phenomena on the blade surface are reported in
662 the second paper [30].

663 In this paragraph, the analysis of the results refers to the impact
664 location of the particles on the blade surface. It can be noticed that

- 665 • by increasing particle diameter d_p , the SS is less affected by
666 the impacts. There are a greater number of impacts on the PS.
667 In Fig. 7, the trends of the impacting particles on the blade
668 (for both sides) for all the cases can be seen. The η_{hit} values
669 reported for the PS $\eta_{hit,PS}$ and SS $\eta_{hit,SS}$ refer to the percentage
670 of particles that hit the PS or SS compared to the total
671 number of injected particles. As can be seen from Fig. 7, the
672 particles tend to hit the PS in increasing quantities as the particle
673 diameter increases. These distributions are very important
674 from operators' points of view, because the capability of
675 the compressor to collect air contaminant is directly related
676 to the power unit performance drop. In Fig. 7, the η_{side} values
677 are reported in pie charts. These values refer to the

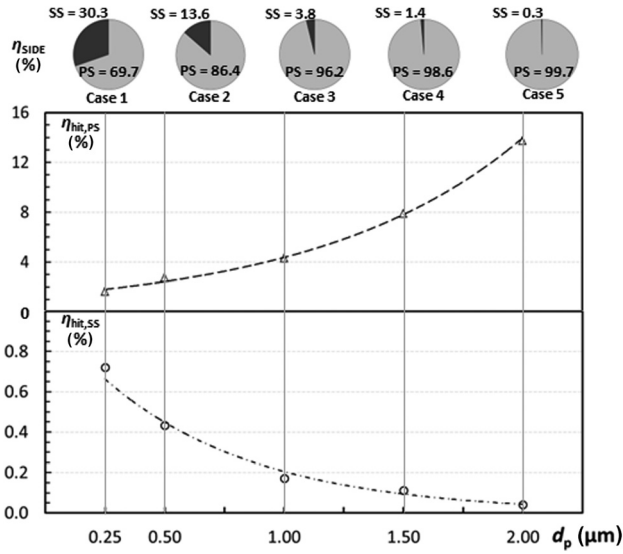


Fig. 7 Particle impact distributions, PS and SS

percentage of particles that hit the blade on PS or SS compared to the total number of particles that hit the blade. This result is in line with those reported in literature regarding (i) fouling characterized by particles with dimensions close to the unit of micron [3] and (ii) erosion of rotor blades which is characterized by larger particles [15]. In fact, the fouling phenomenon is characterized by a wider distribution of the particle on the blade surfaces with respect to erosion that shows a higher percentage of impacts on the PS than on the SS;

- for cases 1 and 2, in which the particles have a diameter equal to 0.25 μm and 0.50 μm , respectively, particles impact on the entire height of the blade in the SS; in all cases, particles impact 25% (up to 3rd strip) of the blade height in the SS. In particular, the presence of particles that hit the rear part of the airfoil can be seen in cases 3, 4, and 5. This phenomenon is due to the separation and consequent three-dimensional vortex that drags the contaminants into the vicinity of the hub, as can be seen in Fig. 8, which highlights the low particle velocity zone close to the hub. Analogous results can be found in Ref. [31] where field data regarding the deposition of foulants on a transonic blade compressor are reported. Sili ngardi et al. [31] reported the blade surface condition after

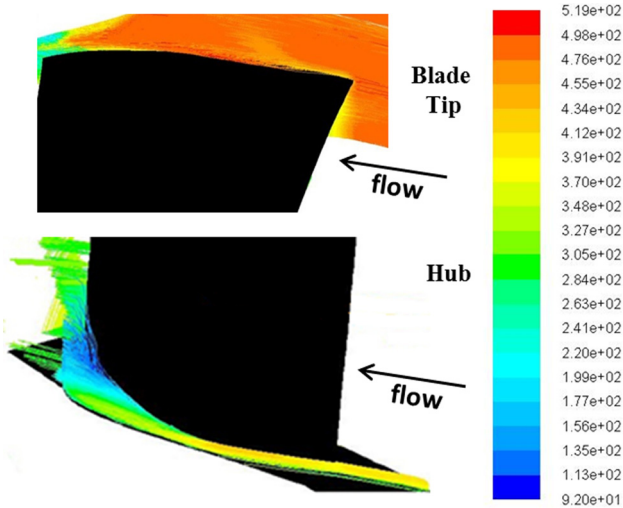


Fig. 8 Particle trajectories (colored by velocity (m/s)) at the hub and at the blade tip, SS, case 2

25,000 operation hours and the authors highlighted that three-dimensional flow features cause small particles to be deposited in zones where secondary flows and vortices are dominant;

- in correspondence to the blade tip, the presence of impacts on both sides of the blade can be noticed. For the largest particles (1.50 μm and 2.00 μm), the presence of impacting particles on the SS dragged into that area by the tip leakage vortex can be noticed. In fact, the presence of the tip gap (equal to 0.356 mm) causes the tip leakage vortex that drags the particles from the PS to the SS of the blade, as can be seen in Fig. 8;
- there are particular impact patterns in the first portions of the chord, where there is a high presence of impacting particles on the LE and, by contrast, there are no particles in the area immediately downstream. This effect, highlighted in Fig. 9, is due to the phenomena of stagnation induced from the nose of the airfoil. In Fig. 9, it is possible to observe the pattern of impact (Case 1), for the 6th strip (47% of span) and the contour plot of the air velocity of a blade-to-blade surface superimposed. In Fig. 9, for both the SS and PS, the phenomenon of stagnation that influences particle impact on the blade surface can be seen.

In the Appendix, an overall representation of the impact zone is reported.

In order to show the obtained results in a general form, useful for comparative analysis, some new quantities are introduced in this paper. The new quantities refer to the impact concentration on the blade surface.

The first quantity is defined as the percentage of impact concentration on the strip

$$X_{\text{STRIP}} = \left[\frac{\text{No. impacts at strip}}{\text{No. impacts at blade}} 100 \right] \frac{1}{A_{\text{STRIP}}} \quad (18)$$

where A_{STRIP} refers to the strip area. By using X_{STRIP} values, it is possible to highlight the impacts along the spanwise direction of the blade.

As can be seen from Fig. 10, all cases show the smallest number of impacts for the 5th strip. The impact distribution assumes the same qualitative trend for all cases: (i) a high percentage of impacts in correspondence to the strips closest to the hub (1st and 2nd strip, 3% and 12% of the span, respectively) probably due to the shape of the hub and to the fluid dynamic phenomena that are mentioned above and highlighted in Fig. 8, (ii) a small percentage of impacts in the middle of the blade height (5th and 6th strip, 38% and 47% of the span, respectively), and (iii) a high percentage of impacts in correspondence to about 60% of the span.

The presence of impacting particles at the blade tip (11th strip) grows with the increase of the particle diameter and plays a key role directly related to compressor performance. As reported by Aldi et al. [5], the effects of fouling at the blade tip (e.g., the increase in surface roughness) have a greater influence on the compressor performance degradation.

From the analysis of the chart reported in Fig. 10, it can be noticed that the impacts on the 10th and 11th, 83% and 94% of the span, respectively, are comparable with the impacts that occur on the rest of the blade. This result highlights how all the particle diameters are potentially suitable for generating a real compressor performance drop.

The distribution of the particle impact along the blade span is slightly influenced by the wall-particle interaction settings. In fact, only a small percentage of the particles that hit the blade bounce from the shroud or from the hub to the blade surface. In particular, for Case 3 ($d_p = 1.00 \mu\text{m}$) this percentage reaches the maximum value, 5%, while for the other cases, this percentage is about 3%. Thus, the nonadherence condition (*reflect*) imposed on the hub and shroud surfaces does not limit the generality of the results.

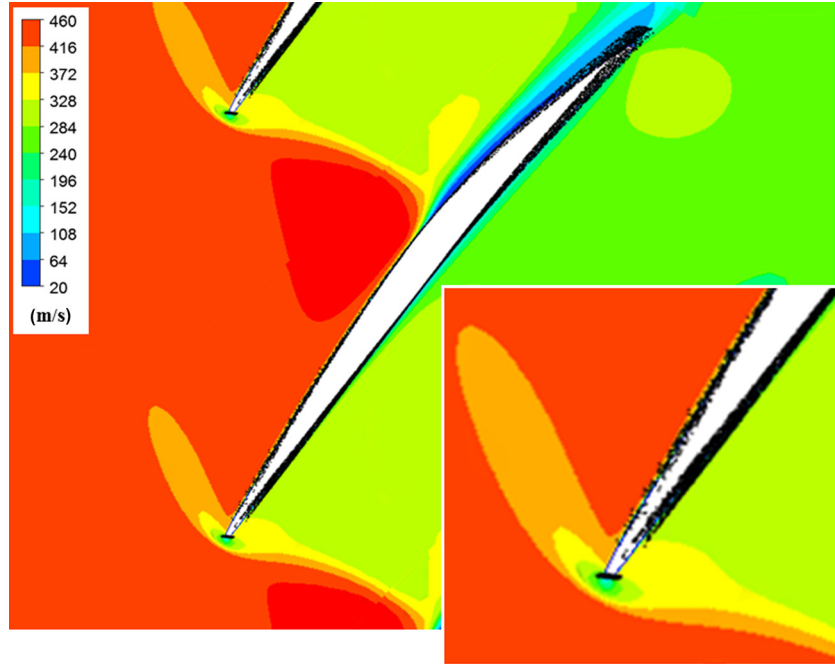


Fig. 9 Blade-to-blade velocity contours and impact patterns superimposed, 6th strip, case 1

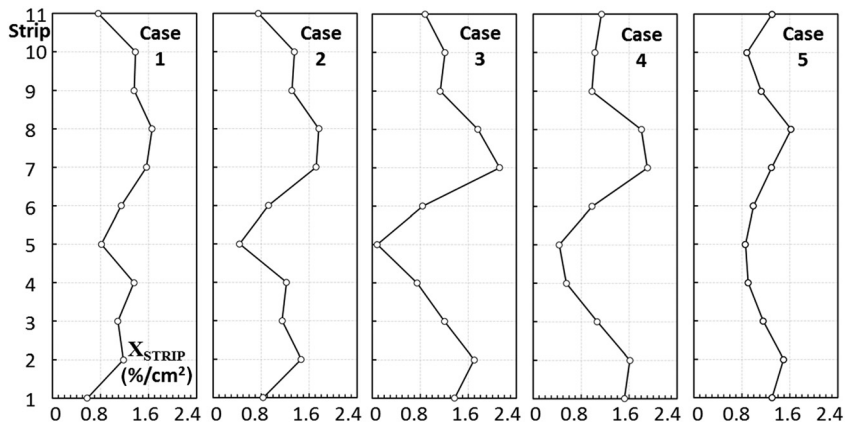


Fig. 10 Impact strip concentrations X_{STRIP}

764 From a fouling point of view, the most interesting results refer
 765 to Case 1, with particle diameter equal to $0.25 \mu\text{m}$. In fact, even if
 766 the number of particles that hit the blade surface is the smallest
 767 (see Fig. 4) the particles are present both in PS and SS.

768 A more significant and detailed analysis of the impact locations
 769 on the blade surface for Case 1 ($d_p = 0.25 \mu\text{m}$) can be observed in
 770 Fig. 11. In this graph, concerning the 2nd, 6th, and 10th strips
 771 (12%, 47%, and 83% of the span, respectively) the impact patterns
 772 along the chord for a specific strip can be noted.

773 The quantity reported in Fig. 11 is defined in agreement with
 774 the other one defined in Eq. (18).

775 In this case, the impact concentrations X_{SLICE} refer to the
 776 amount of impacts in a single slice obtained by a chordwise division
 777 of the strip with respect to the total number of particles that
 778 impact the entire considered strip

$$X_{SLICE} = \left[\frac{\text{No. impacts at slice}}{\text{No. impacts at strip}} 100 \right] \frac{1}{A_{SLICE}} \quad (19)$$

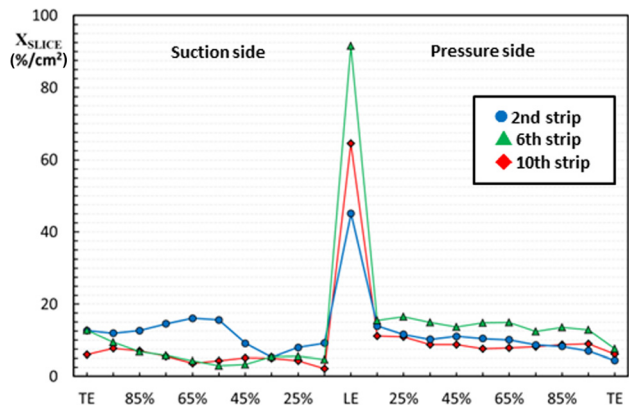


Fig. 11 Particle distributions X_{SLICE} , 2nd, 6th, and 10th strip, case 1

Table 5 Impact concentrations, case 1

Strip	$A_{STRIP,SS}$ (cm ²)	$X_{STRIP,SS}$ (%/cm ²)	$X_{hit,STRIP,SS}$ (%/cm ²)
1	2.72	1.262	0.018
2	4.11	2.458	0.034
3	3.94	2.138	0.030
4	3.63	2.595	0.036
5	3.62	1.789	0.025
6	3.61	2.027	0.028
7	3.58	2.945	0.041
8	3.59	3.657	0.051
9	3.61	2.683	0.037
10	5.09	2.685	0.037
11	5.58	1.391	0.019

779 where A_{SLICE} refers to the area of the slice obtained by a chord-
 780 wise division of the strip. The adopted chordwise division is
 781 reported in abscissa for each distribution. Figure 11 shows the
 782 impact distributions in terms of X_{SLICE} for the 2nd, 6th, and 10th
 783 strips. From Fig. 11, the high percentage of impacts on the LE can
 784 be noted which, in relative terms to the impacts on the strip,
 785 reaches a peak for the 6th strip (i.e., at midspan). A similar phe-
 786 nomenon can also be found in the experimental measurements
 787 reported by Parker and Lee [17] where the authors provided some
 788 deposition tests for a turbine blade.
 789 The strip closest to the hub (2nd strip) shows a more uniform
 790 impact distribution on the blade surface, affecting the SS more
 791 than the PS. In the strip at the top of the blade (10th strip), there is
 792 a high impact concentration on LE and a low impact concentration
 793 on TE if compared to the other two strips. For all the shown
 794 impact distribution trends on the strips, a different decreasing
 795 trend of the number of impacts between PS and SS can be noticed.
 796 In fact, in the PS at the portion of the chord immediately after the
 797 LE, there are a number of impacts comparable what occurs in the
 798 remaining slices. On the contrary, in the SS, there is a nonuniform
 799 decreasing trend of the number of impacts. In fact, there are a
 800 smaller number of impacts in the slice immediately next to the LE
 801 with respect to slices corresponding to higher chords. In particu-
 802 lar, the peak of impacts for the TE in the 2nd and 6th strip are
 803 highlighted. The analysis of impacts on the SS plays an important
 804 role, such as the one conducted at the tip of the blade because it is
 805 directly related to the loss of performance for fouled compressors.
 806 As pointed out by Morini et al. in Ref. [4], the effects of fouling
 807 on the SS (e.g., the increase in surface roughness) have a greater
 808 influence on the compressor performance degradation. For this
 809 reason, in the next paragraph, the authors present a dedicated

analysis regarding particle impacts on the SS obtained from the 810
 results of Case 1 ($d_p = 0.25 \mu m$). 811

SS Analyses. The first analysis on particle impacts for the SS is 812
 conducted by introducing a quantity in agreement with the other 813
 defined in Eq. (18). In this case, the impact concentration 814
 $X_{STRIP,SS}$ refers to the number of impacts in a single SS strips 815
 compared to the total number of impacts affecting the entire SS 816

$$X_{STRIP,SS} = \left[\frac{\text{No. impacts at strip, SS}}{\text{No. impacts at SS}} \cdot 100 \right] \frac{1}{A_{STRIP}} \quad (20)$$

Table 5 reports the different values of $X_{STRIP,SS}$ for each strip. 817
 Unlike the trends reported in Fig. 10, the values are very similar. 818
 In this case, there is not a clear decrease in the number of impacts 819
 in correspondence to the 5th strip. The SS is affected by a fairly 820
 large number of impacts in the highest strips (8th–11th) for which 821
 the fouling sensitivity is the highest [4,5]. 822

In Table 5, the values of the $X_{hit,STRIP,SS}$ are also reported. The 823
 $X_{hit,STRIP,SS}$ is defined by the ratio of the amount of impacts in a 824
 single SS strip compared to the total number of injected particles. 825
 These values have the same importance for the gas turbine opera- 826
 tors as the values reported in Fig. 7. 827

In Fig. 12, the impacts distributions on the entire SS can be 828
 seen. The quantity used to represent the results is the same as the 829
 one used in Fig. 11 and defined by Eq. (19). To improve the read- 830
 ing of the contour, the values of LE and TE were omitted. 831

The greatest SS impact concentration takes place in the front 832
 (close to LE) and in the rear (close to TE). In fact, the peaks of the 833
 impact concentration are carried out at the end of the profiles at 834
 the 2nd and 8th strip. Only a small portion of the SS, in correspon- 835
 dence to the 6th strip and approximately at half chord, is almost 836
 completely free from impacts. The impact pattern of the SS shows 837
 a peculiarity due to a specific fluid dynamic phenomenon. As 838
 reported by Parker and Lee [17], the collision of the particles 839
 takes place in the areas preceding and following the area (line) of 840
 flow separation from the blade. As shown in Fig. 12, the overlap- 841
 ping (qualitative because of the projection on the plane) of the 842
 impact contour and the separation line (obtained by the shear 843
 stress contour plot) shows the correspondence of the two effects. 844
 This phenomenon is also evident from Fig. 12, in which the num- 845
 ber of impacts in the SS has a much less uniform trend than those 846
 related to the PS, where the flow separation does not take place. 847
 From Fig. 12, the chordwise coordinates at which the flow separa- 848
 tion from the blade surface occurs can be distinctly identified. In 849
 particular: (i) for the 2nd strip the separation occurs at 30–35% of 850

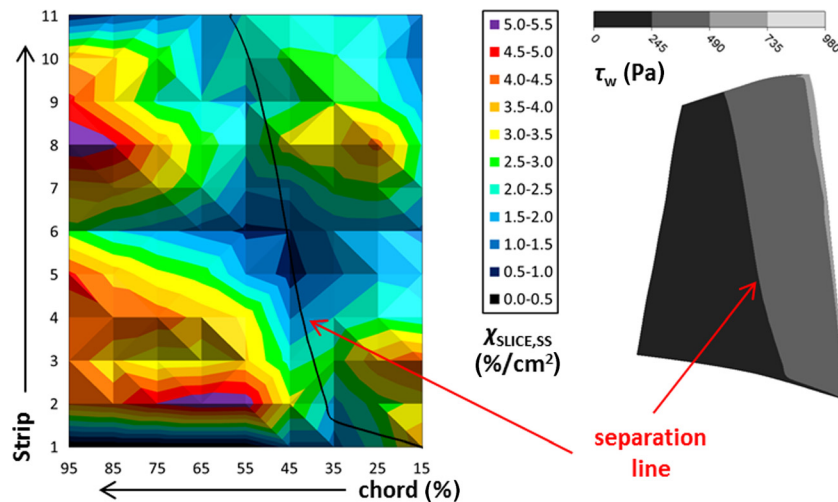


Fig. 12 Shear stress and deposition contour plots $X_{SLICE,SS}$ with the separation line superimposed, case 1

851 the chord, (ii) for the 6th strip the separation occurs at 50% of the
 852 chord, and finally (iii) for the 10th strip the separation occurs for
 853 65% of the chord.

854 **Conclusions**

855 In this paper, an extended study on microparticle ingestion by
 856 an axial stage compressor was carried out. Modern air filtration
 857 systems for industrial gas turbines will only remove a portion of
 858 these particles from the airstream. These small particles are
 859 responsible for compressor fouling if they come into contact with
 860 the compressor airfoils and stick there. For this reason, by using a
 861 Eulerian–Lagrangian numerical CFD approach, the authors have
 862 studied the interaction of ultrafine powder with the blade surface.

863 The numerical model and the particle model have been
 864 validated by the experimental and numerical data reported in liter-
 865 ature. Special attention was given to the particle–wall interaction
 866 in terms of turbulence model wall treatment and in terms of the
 867 restitution coefficients. Using realistic air contamination data, the
 868 filtration efficiency of state of the art air filtration systems, and
 869 the size of the axial compressor, we obtained results for both the
 870 particle trajectories (including the impact zones on the blade sur-
 871 face), and the magnitude of fouling which can afflict the axial
 872 compressor.

873 The key results can be summarized as follows:

- 874 • the percentage of particles that hit the blade surface increases
 875 with the diameter of the particles with a law very similar to
 876 the variation of the Stokes number;
- 877 • the most severe fouling conditions that affected the Rotor 37
 878 at the best efficiency point, is for particles with a diameter
 879 equal to 1.00 μm ;
- 880 • with the increasing particle diameter the SS is less affected
 881 by the impacts that take place in a greater quantity on the PS;
- 882 • particular fluid dynamic phenomena such as tip vortex due to
 883 the tip leakage, separations, and stagnation point determine
 884 and influence the impact patterns;
- 885 • the analysis of the impact locations obtained for the smallest
 886 particles showed different trends for the PS and the SS due to
 887 the different fluid dynamic phenomena.

888 The understanding of fouling mechanisms in compressors is
 889 still a challenge for manufacturers and users. An increase in the
 890 knowledge of fouling through the use of numerical codes may
 891 therefore constitute a decisive element for better planning of
 892 maintenance of turbomachinery. In this sense, the second part of
 893 this work will focus on impact kinematics analysis and particle
 894 sticking phenomena in order to better describe and understand
 895 particle–blade interaction.

896 **Nomenclature**

- 897 A = area
- 898 a_1, a_2, a_3 = model coefficient
- 899 b = bounce (average)
- 900 B = function (referred to erosion model)
- 901 C = function
- 902 d = diameter
- 903 d_{ij} = deformation tensor
- 904 e = restitution coefficient
- 905 f = function (referred to impact angle)
- 906 F = force
- 907 g = gravity acceleration
- 908 H = fouling index
- 909 h_f = mass transfer coefficient
- 910 k = turbulent kinetic energy
- 911 K = model constant
- 912 m = mass flow rate
- 913 M = mass
- 914 N = total particles (referred to particles)
- 915 p = pressure

- q = volume flow rate 916
- Re = Reynolds number 917
- St = Stokes number 918
- t = time 919
- T = temperature 920
- u = velocity 921
- U = averaged velocity 922
- v = relative velocity particle 923
- X = impact concentration (blade) 924
- y^+ = nondimensional distance 925

Greek Symbols

- α = impact angle 927
- β = compression ratio 928
- ε = dissipation rate of turbulent kinetic energy 929
- η = efficiency 930
- λ = molecular mean free path 931
- μ = dynamic viscosity 932
- ν = kinematic viscosity 933
- ρ = density 934
- τ = shear stress 935
- τ^+ = nondimensional particle relaxation time 936
- χ = particle concentration (air) 937

Subscripts and Superscripts

- b = bounce 939
- B = Brownian 940
- c = Cunningham 941
- D = drag 942
- f = filtration system 943
- g = gauge 944
- h = hydraulic 945
- hit = hit (referred to particle–blade interaction) 946
- l, k = indices 947
- n = normal direction 948
- p = particle 949
- S = Saffman 950
- sh = shear 951
- SIDE = side (referred to the side of the blade) 952
- SLICE = slice (referred to chordwise division) 953
- STRIP = strip (referred to spanwise division) 954
- t = tangential 955
- TT = total-to-total 956
- w = wall 957
- 0 = total 958
- 1 = inlet 959
- 2 = outlet 960
- = average 961
- \sim = weighted-area average 962
- $*$ = peak 963

Acronyms

- DPM = discrete phase model 965
- DRW = discrete random walk 966
- CFD = computational fluid dynamics 967
- FDS = flux-difference splitting 968
- LE = leading edge 969
- PS = pressure side 970
- SS = suction side 971
- STW = STandard Wall function 972
- TE = trailing edge 973

Appendix: Overall Impact Patterns

974 All the particle impact patterns in Fig. 13 are reported. Each
 975 pattern represents the projection of the fouled airfoil into a per-
 976 pendicular plane with respect to the spanwise direction. On the
 977 left side, the spanwise station and the correspondent percentage of
 978

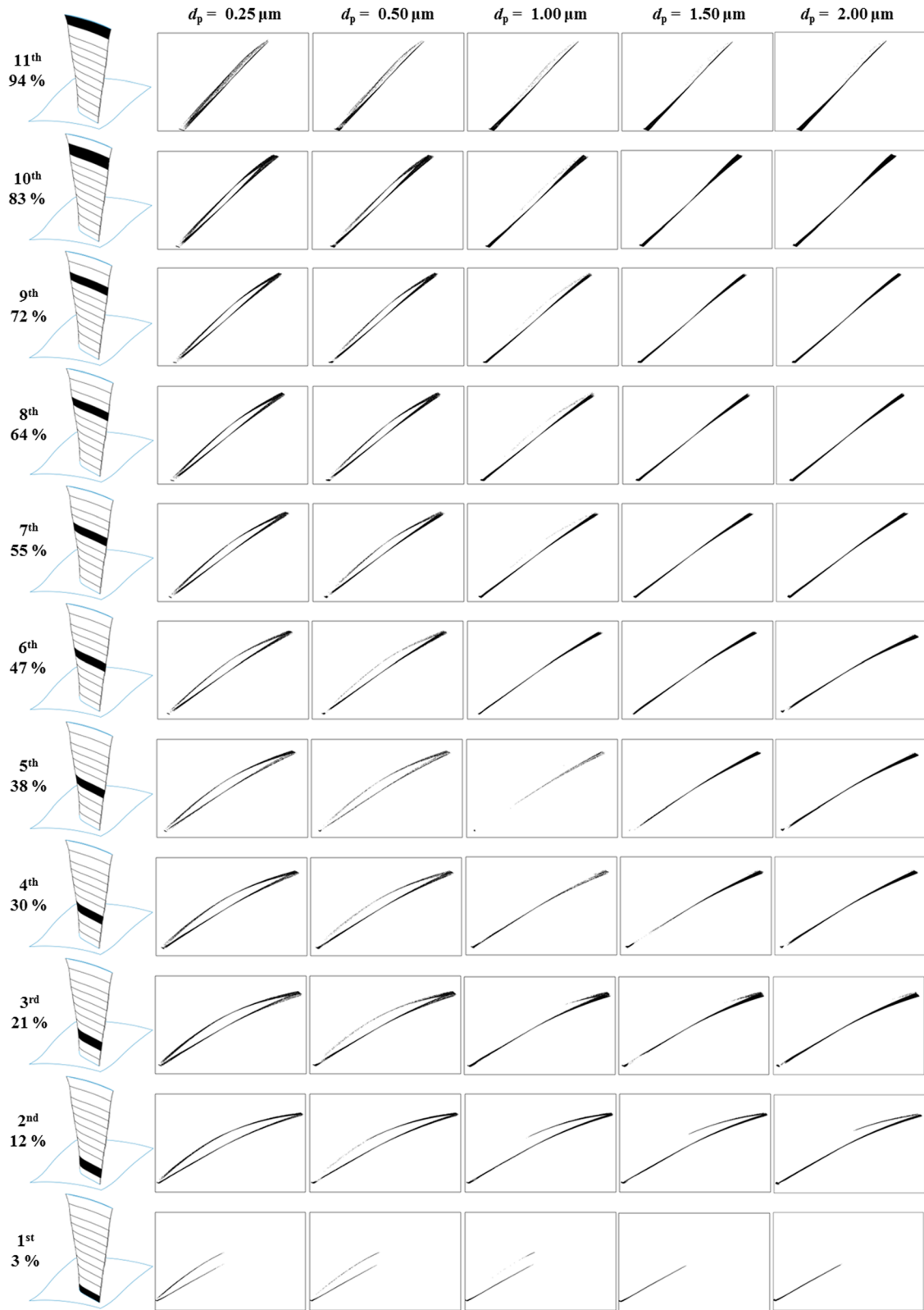


Fig. 13 Spanwise subdivision (left side) and overall impact patterns

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979 the blade span can be seen. The blade was divided by 11 strips
 980 along the spanwise direction and each dot on the graph represents
 981 a single particle that has hit the blade surface. Due to the shape of
 982 the hub, which develops along the streamwise direction with differ-
 983 ent diameters, the projection of the first strip is not complete
 984 and only the first half of the airfoil can be represented.

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